SOME NEW BOOKS

South Africa. Mr. GRORGE M. THEAL of the Cape Colonial Civil Service, the author of an elaborate history of South Africa, has been invited to prepare sketch of that region for the "Story of the Nations" series, now publishing by the Putnams. The parts of this sketch relating to the Cane Colony, to Natal, the Orange Free State, the South African republic, Zululand, and Basuto-land, are mainly taken from the larger work; but they are brought down nearly to the present date. Nearly, but not quite, for the account of the British Chartered Company's territory stops short of the outbreak of hostilities which has led to the occupation of Matabeleland. The early history of the nominal Portuguese annexation of the country south of the Zambesi, and the actual Dutch colonization of certain parts of together with the southward pressure of the Kaffirs, interesting results of which were the Zulu and the Matabele military organizations, is indispensable to a thorough understanding of present state of things in South Africa. Nevertheless, in this notice, we must confine ourselves to the author's outline of the existing attuation in the Cape Colony, the Orange Fre state, and South African republic, and in Natal, Zululand, Bechuanaland, and other

British dependencies A preliminary word ought to be said concern ing certain words in common use in South Africa, but whose exact significance does not seem understood elsewhere. The term Boer, for instance, means in Dutch a tiller of the ground uth Africa is applied to cattle breed ers, as well as to agriculturists, and is frequently ased in the plural form to signify the whole rural population of European blood speaking ch language. By kraal is meant a cattie fold. The word is a corruption of the Portugese "curral." It is also used to signify collection of either Hottentot or Bantu huts, as se are usually built in a circle, within which the cattle are kept at night. The Dutch word lager means an enclosure for protective purposes, such as a circular wall of stone, or s number of wagons lashed together. By burgher is meant a European male, no matter where resident, who is in possession of the franchise and liable to all public duties. It corresponds to he civis Romanus of old. Heemraden are burghers appointed by the Government to act asors in the district courts of justice. A landdrost is a stipendiary magistrate who administers justice and receives the revenue of the district. Another Dutch word, volksraad, signifies the people's council, an elected legislative body. Three Bantu words are in common use, viz., induna, an officer of high rank under Zulu chief: calabash, the hard rind of a gourd used for various purposes, such as water pots, tars, dishes, basins, spoff boxes, &c.; and tastas, e sting destroys domestic cattle, but has no effect upon wild animals. Curiously enough, the tsetse disappears from a district when the game is exterminated or driven away. We add that the word assagal, meaning the favelin or dart, used by the Hottentot and Bantu in war and the chase, is a corruption of the tuguese azagaya, which was derived from the Latin hasta.

To comprehend the actual condition and the prospects of the Cape Colony, one must begin with a glance at its political institutions. The Constitution of this colony was promulgated on March 11, 1853. By it were created two chambers, both elective, termed, respectively, the Legislative Council and the House of Assembly. The upper chamber for some years consisted of embers, but in course of time this number was increased to twenty-two, besides the Chief Justice, who acts as presiding officer. For the purpose of electing the members of the upse, the colony was divided into two provinces, more recently into eight circles. The nembers hold their seats for seven years. The House of Assembly, on its creation, consisted of forty-six members, elected by twenty-two divitions, Cape Town having two more representatives than any of the others. It now consists of seventy-six members, elected by thirty-seven ons, and holding their seats for five years. Parliament is summoned to meet by the Goveror (who is, of course, appointed by the Crown), but a period of twelve months must not clapse beween the sessions. The right to vote for bers of both chambers was originally conferred upon every male British subject over twentyone years of age who occupied a house or land worth \$125, or was in receipt of a salary of \$135 a year with board and lodging, or \$250 without. There was no distinction as regards race or color or religion, or manner of living. In course of time, however, it was found expedient to alter these qualifications. As in the Cape Colony there is a large class of people unable to comprehend the nature of representative instituions, and which is yet in possession of sufficient property to bring them within one of the condiions specified above, in 1892 the right to vote was restricted to such adult male subjects as were ble to sign their names and to write down their addresses, and to occupy property worth \$375 or receive \$250 a year as salary or wages.

Since the enactment of this Constitution no

law can be made in the Cape Colony without the approval of both Houses and the sanction of the Governor. It is true that the right is reserved to the Queen to disallow any law so made within two years of its reaching England, but in practice this right is very rarely used. Never-theless, although the colonists were gratified by the change from arbitrary to representative government, they had still much to wish for. The officials of highest rank who formed the Governor's Cabinet continued to be sent out from England, and held their appointments dur-ing the pleasure of the British Colonial Secretary, no matter whether the Cape Parliament likes them or not. They framed all Government measures, had exclusive power of introducing money bills, and possessed the right of discussion, though not of voting, in both chambers This condition of things lasted eighteen years. In 1872 responsible government was introduced. and the Ministers have since that time been the leaders of the party in Parliament that can con mand the largest number of votes in support of their projects. These Ministers are the Colonial Secretary, the Treasurer, the Attorney-General, the Commissioner of Public Works, and the Secretary for Agriculture. There is also the Prime Minister, who may hold any of these appointments, or none of them, but who in any case has all matters connected with the aboriginal races directly under his care. Until 1882 the English language only could be used in debate in the Cape Parliament, and the same rule applied to proceedings in the courts of justice and to transactions in the public offices. This was decidedly unfair, for Dutch is habitu ally spoken by fully three-fifths of the white people in the colonies, and by a still larger pro-portion of the colored inhabitants exclusive of the Bantu. The suppression of Dutch as the official language was one of the chief grievances that rankied in the breast of the old colonies, and, in truth, the Cape Parliament could not be said to represent the people as long as the lan-guage of the majority was proscribed. When the Boers awakened to the full significance of responsible government one of their first acts was to secure the same rights for their own tongue as for the English. Either can now be used in courts of law, in Parliament, or in public offices, at the choice of the speaker, and no one is admitted into the ordinary branches of the civil service who does not know both. Since the management of its affairs has been

in the hands of its own people the Cape Colony has made a great stride in prosperity. Its principal industries are still pastoral and agricultural, but these are now carried on in a much more effective way than formerly. The great Karoo plains, thinly speckled with succulent plants, and the long grassy slopes further to the north, are covered with flocks of merino sheep and Angora goats, which are kept up to a high standard by the importation of the best foreign blood. In these parts of the colony agriculture only possible where there is running water, but a great deal of labor has been expended in making reservoirs from which gardens and orchards can be irrigated, and recently much success has attended the sinking of artesian wells. On the first and second terraces from the south-ern coast and in the districts adjoining the eastern borders the rainfall is ample, and agri-

breeding. Wheat and maize are the principal crops, but cats are grown conjointly, and almost every kind of vegetable and fruit is abundant. In the southwestern part of the colony-the part settled in the seventeenth century the culture of wheat and the vine is carried on. Sufficient wheat, indeed, is not at present grown for home consumption and the supply of shipping, because the farmers have not been able to keep pace with the sudden and rapidly increasing demand caused by the mining industry in the north; but, according to Mr. Theal, there is reason to believe that the large importation of recent years will not continue much longer. The quality of the wines and spirits made has been much improved of late, though it does not yet satisfy European and American palates. Ostriches have been tamed, and their feathers form an important item in the trade returns. On the other hand, skins of wild animals have quite disappeared, for the large game with which the country once teemed has been exter minated. The output of ivory, also, has greatly failen off, and the little that is now exported is brought from the distant interior.

HF. Mr. Theal does not attempt to give the value of the purely colonial products, but he notes that the quantity from the whole of South Africa in the year ending June 30, 1893, was appraised at a little over \$67,500,000, of which \$61,250,000 passed through the ports Cape Colony, and \$6,250,000 through Burban Natal. Of the items that made up this amount, gold was first, being valued at \$22,500,000, and liamonds came next, being appraised at nearly \$20,000,000. The copper ore exported was worth over \$1,250,000, and the coal over \$250,000. These figures, representing nearly two-thirds in value of the total exports, show the importance of the mining industry of South Africa, and it must be remembered that this industry is only in its infancy, dating from 1852, when copper mines were opened in Namaqualand. Taking only the remaining exports into consideration, we find that they are now about ten times as great as they were in 1850. Pastoral pursuits are represented by wool to the value of \$13,250,000; by Angora hair, worth \$3,000,-000; by hides, skins, and horns to the value of \$2,750,000, and by ostrich feathers, appraised at nearly \$2,500,000. Agriculture as yet contributes but sittle to the exports, because nearly everything that is grown is required for home consumption. Still a little fruit and grain is sent abroad. Wine, to the value of \$90,000, finds its way out of the country. Aloes and argol contribute about \$10,000 each. Natal sends away bark for tanning to the value of \$35,000, and the Cape Colony dried flowers worth \$105,000. The fisheries supply large quantities of food for use in the country and an export to Mauritius amounting to \$65,000. Natal disposes of sugar to the value of nearly \$500,000. Altogether this means that South Africa has a purchasing power at the present time of over \$65,000,000 yearly, less the interest on the public debts, and on the foreign capital invested in the country. The bulk of th trade is with Great Britain, and a large proporof it originates in the Cape Colony. Excluding its dependencies, this colony has a

population of 366,000 Europeans and 755,000 colored people. Of these last over half are of Bantu descendants of freed slaves, and Hottentots. All are subject to the same laws, except in a few particulars where it has been found necessary to make special provision for Bantu communities, such as the recognition of communal tenure of land in certain locations, the prohibition of the sale of spirituous liquor in defined areas and the supervision of these people when they live in undue number on farms owned by Europeans. For many years missionaries of nearly every Christian society have been laboring among the Bantu communities, the mixed breeds, and the Hottentots, but we are told by Mr. Theal that the result upon the whole is discouraging to those who look for high improvement. Owing, moreover, to the zeal of the missionaries being expended upon colored children rather than on white, it is a fact that there is at present a large section of the rural European population without any knowledge of books. We are assured however, that this state of things, having recently attracted serious attention, will not be suffered to con-As Asiatics in the Cape Colony are chiefly descendants of people from the Spice Islands, who were sent here in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries and were commonly termed Malays. Those of pure blood are almost without exception Mohammedans. It seems however, that many Africans and people of mixed blood have adopted Islam, and, as they have intermarried, the so-called Malays now present every variety of appearance between the pure Asiatic, the pure European, and the pure African. The Malay inhabitants of the and Hottentots. Many of them are chanics, and the amount of property that they hold is considerable. They are confined entirely to towns. We learn that some Indians from Hindostan have recently migrated to this country, among whom are a few who profess the man Catholic faith. There is already an excellent system of public schools, each under the joint control of a local board of managers, and under the educational department of the Govrnment, half the cost being defrayed by the colonial Treasurer. Those of the first and second lass are attended almost exclusively by white children. Then there are several colleges in which higher education is imparted, and numerous schools connected with religious societies. The Cape Colony has further a university, but this, like the London University, is only an examining body empowered to confer degrees.

III.

It appears that no expense is spared to bring justice within the reach of every one. There are seventy-eight stipendiary magistrates who try petty, civil, and criminal cases in as many districts. The Supreme Court consists of a Chief Justice and eight puisne Judges, but as two form a quorum, in practice three of those Judges sit in Grahamstown, three in Kimberley, and the others in Cape Town. Twice a year a Judge of the Supreme Court visits each district town and tries cases which are beyond the jurisdiction of the magistrate. The towns and villages are supplied with libraries, aided by the general Government. Hardly any town is without two or three churches of different denomingions, and banks, insurance offices, benevolent institutions, and newspapers are found in nearly all. Municipal government is enforced in every community of the slightest note, and is, we are told, abused only in rare instances. Each district has a divisional council, with powers over a large area, somewhat similar to those of the municipal councils in the villages. Good roads have been made even in the wildest parts of the co'ony, and the rivers on the principal routes have been bridged. There is scarcely a hamlet that is not now connected with all parts of South Africa by the post and the telegraph wire. Very great improvements have been made in the harbors, especially in Table Bay. Here in former times the beach was frequently after winter storms strewn with the wrecks of fleets, but now ships lie docked in perfect safety and a magnificent break water protects the outer anchorage. The cost of these works, including a dry dock capable of containing steamers of the first class, is nearly \$7,500,000. On the coast numerous lighthouses stand as sentinels to warn seamen of danger by night, and the ancient terror of the stormy scan off the Cape has been long forgotten. As a matter of fact, the vio-lence of the ocean in this quarter was at all times trifling compared with the fury of the North Atlantic. The Cape Colony is connected with Europe by two submarine cables, so that anything of importance that occurs there one day is known in South Africa through the newspapers on the next. Fine steamships, carrying mails and pascengers, arrive from England and leave for it weekly, often making the run of six thousand miles in less than fifteen days.

Against the material prosperity which this interesting colony has attained within the last

forty years must be placed the public debt of

rather over \$130,000,000, or about \$355 per in-

dividual colonist, if the colored inhabitants are

excluded. This rate, per head, however, to de-

ceptive, because it fails to take into account that the colored people perform the rough labor

on the eastern frontier, does not constitute danger. On the whole, we are assured by Mr. Theal that never was the country under review so truly a land of good hope as at present. No one, of course, can tell what its mineral exports may be ten years hence, but now certainly they are advancing at a very rapid rate. The mines furnish excellent markets for agricultural products of every kind, so that the farmer does not need to look for customers abroad. A vast open territory in the interior is open to in-habitants, and the company that owns it is inviting occupation on most liberal terms. There is an opportunity here of introducing civilization far into the heart of Africa, and the only way in which it can be done successfully is by means of European settlements sufficiently strong to rule without danger of revolt, and to be able at the same time to act with justice and kindness toward the native races.

Napoleon's Secretary's Memotra. THIRD ARTICLE.

The third and concluding volume of the me noirs of Baron de Méneval carries us to the end of Napoleon's career, or, in other words, to the second abdication after the battle of Waterloo. The war against Russia, which culminated in the retreat from Moscow, the contest with he allied powers which ended, so far as Germany was concerned, with the battle of Leipsic, the ensuing wonderful campaign for the defence of France, the first abdication and retirement to the island of Elba, and the Hundred Days: all these matters are discussed by one who was not only an eyewitness, but who, as the private secretary and devoted friend of Napoleon, had extraordinary opportunities of gaining information. How completely he possessed Napoleon's con-fidence may be judged from the fact that he was commissioned to accompany the Empress Marie Louise to Vienna, after the first abdication, and to act as the intermediary between her and her husband. It is not surprising. therefore, that the present volume begins and ends with references to the Austrian wife of the French Emperor. There is no doubt that the grandniece of Marie Antoinette was an interest-

I.

ing person, not only by reason of the position

which she occupied, but because the weakness

which has exposed her to obloquy was, in truth,

the outcome of a political conspiracy whose aim

was to rob her and her son of the respect and

sympathy of Frenchmen. There is a great deal

about her in this volume.

Thus at the outset we are told that the atmosphere of the court, and the habit which Marie Louise had of living familiarly with the Emperor, who paid her a great deal of attention, treated her in a simple and affectionate way, and often amused her with a gayety which was often animated, caused this princess to forget the strictness and reserve which she owed to her natural timidity at the time of her arrival in France. Her bearing became easy; she had ome somewhat less stout, and her figure. which was of perfect symmetry, had very much improved. Fine eyes, full of sweetness, and a beautifully fresh complexion gave to her face an agreeable expression, and rendered the general aspect of her person both noble and graceful. Weighed down by duties and cares on the eve of a rupture with Russia, the Emperor found his time taken up with the multifarious occupations of his Cabinet and with the work of his Ministers. It was only with his wife and his son that he found relief from fatigue. Much of the little leisure which his affairs left him in the daytime was spent with his son, whose tottering steps it cleased him to guide with a womanly care. The frequent falls of the cherished child were greeted with caresses and loud shouts of laughter by his father. The Empress, who used to be esent at these family scenes, did not take so active a part in them as the Emperor. Méneval says that these three persons, whose simplicity might have led one to forget their greatness, offered the spectacle of a middle-class family, at tached to each other by the fondest affection. In other words Napoleon's secretary, who, if we could credit him with equal intelligence, would be deemed a better authority than Taine, contends that the great man whom so many prejudiced or mistaken minds have represented as being inaccessible to any tender sentiment was both a good husband and an excellent father. It is certain, he says, that the Empress never found in him a censor of her innocent whims. The following anecdote which Marie Louise, as we are told, would often call to mind, proves the good nature of Napoleon in this respect. The remembrance of a taste which she had acquired in the homely sort of life she had led when quite a girl. inspired one day the Empress with a desire to make an omelette hers if, and she had all the necessary implements and ingredients brought Cape Colony are of a higher type than the Bantu to her apartments. While she was completely Emperor chanced to enter. Somewhat upset by the unexpected visit, Marie Louise end to prevent Napoleon from seeing what she was preparing. "What is going on here?" asked the Emperor. "There is a singular smell, as if something was being fried?" Then, stepping behind the Empress, he discovered a spirit lamp a silver frying pan, in which the butter was beginning to melt, a salad bowl, and eggs, What!" cried Napoleon, "so you are making an omelette! Bah! You don't know how to do it at all. I will show you how it is to be done." He then set to work, the Empress acting as his assistant; but, according to Méneval, he was trying to teach a subordinate who knew mor about it than he did, and whose education had been obtained in a school of experts The Empress's parents were passionately fond of rustic occupations, loving to withdraw into some rural home, and there, disguised as farmers, to attend to household duties with their children. Theomelette having been finished somehow or other, there remaine the important task of tossing it. Napoleon wanted to do this himself; but he had thought himself cleverer than he was. Just as he was trying to toss the omelette, there happened to him what befell the great Condé, who, according to Gourville, wished to make an omelette at an inn where he had stopped, and pitched it into the fire when trying to turn it. Napoleon did not succeed any better, and let the omelette fall on the ground. Obliged to confess his want of experience, he left the Empress to go on with her cooking alone.

Méneval, who certainly had ample opportunities of knowledge, declares that Napoleon did not wish to make war on Russia in 1812, and that he did all he could to avoid it: his first need was to finish the war in Spain. The author tells us that in the midst of his meditations he often heard Napoleon characterize his position with an expression to which he gave vent in the silence of his Cabinet, "The bow is over-stretched." To all the criticisms which have been published on the Russian campaign Méneval opposes with his own complete approval an extract from Napoleon's memoirs. The insisted on in the memoirs was that the war with Russia became the necessary consequence of the continental system on the day on which the Czar Alexander violated conventions of Tilsis and of Erfurth. It is, however, asserted that a consideration of far greater import influenced Napoleon and decided him. The French empire, which he had created with so many victories, would inevitably, as he foresaw, be dismembered at his death. and the sceptre of Europe would pass, he feared. into the hands of a Czar, unless he threw the Russians back to the further side of the Borys thenes and reestablished the throne of Poland, the French empire's natural barrier. In 1812, Austria, Prussia, Germany, Switzerland, and Italy marched under the eagles of France. Was not Napoleon obliged to think that the moment had come for consolidating the immense edifice which he had erected, but on the summit of which Russia would weigh with all the weight of her power, as long as she was able at pleasure to move her enormous armies to the Oder? Alexander was young. It was to be presumed that he would survive Napoleon. According to the French Emperor's memoirs, all the secret of the war is there; no personal feeling weighed in the complete the data concerning Neipperg, the aumatter. This war, moreover, according to the ther mentions the curious fact that this Aus-

war of common sense and of true interests. It was a war for the repose and the security of all; it was conservative, European, and continental. f successful'it would have consummated a comsination which would have caused the dangers of the times to disappear. "Could one believe," asked Napoleon, "that it was precisely there that I was to fail and to meet with ruin? Never did. I act better, never did I deserve better. But, as public opinion were subject to epidemics, lo, in one moment, there was a unlversal outburst of feeling against me. I was proclaimed a tyrant over kings, who had given them a fresh lease of life. I was no longer anything but the destroyer of the rights of nationalities, I who had done all, and was about to risk all in their behalf! And the peoples and the kings, those irreconcilable enemies, allied themselves against me. I knew very well that, with victory, the opinions of the people would come back to my side, but I failed to secure victory, and found myself crushed ! Elsewhere in his memoirs, after describing the sources of the Czar, Napoleon asks, "Was it, however, the efforts only of the Russians which annihilated me? No, it was a capital burned down in spite of the inhabitants, and means of foreign intrigue; winter, a frost whose sudden appearance and excessive rigor were phenome nal; it was the false manceuvres, the countermarches of the Austrian corps, false reports, low intrigues, treachery, cupidity, and many other things, which will be known one day perhaps, and which may avail to extenuate the one clumsy fault in diplomacy and war which can be justly laid to my charge, namely, that, having undertaken such an enterprise, I left on my flanks, which soon became my rear. two Cabinets, of which I was not the master, and two ailled armies, which the slightest reverse would transform into enemies."

HIT. The author of this book makes some bitter comments on the honors paid to Moreau, who fell in the battle of Dresden. It will be remembered that the victor of Hobenlinden had returned from America at the instigation of Bernadotte to act as aide-de-camp to the Emperor of Russia. It is said in Dresden that Napoleon aimed the cannon which killed Moreau. himself. The Czar had the General's body buried in the Catholic Church of St. Petersburg, and addressed a letter of condolence to the widow. presenting her with 500,000 rubles, and conferring upon her a pension of 30,000 rubles. It is not disputed that the Czar had the right to bestow such favors upon the family of a soldier in his service. But what, asks Méneval, is to be said of the act of the representative of France-Louis XVIII.-who, after his restora tion, conferred on Mme. Moreau the Marshal's staff which he had intended for her husband together with the honors and prerogatives which the wives and widows of orphans enjoy? What, too, is to be said of the proposition made on April 26, 1814, to the Senate by one of its mem bers that Gen. Moreau should be declared to have merited the esteem and gratitude of his country by fighting against the armies of France—of the religious service ordered on June 23 of the same year, with the approbation and at the cost of the King, for Pichegru, Georges and Moreau and for the eleven assassins who had perished with Georges-of the royal decree of Feb. 27, 1815, which decreed the erection of statues to Moreau and to Pichegru? Méneval says that public opinion revolted against such an interpretation of national honor. Méneval considers it certain that, on the night

of April 11, 1814, Napoleon yielded to an access of discouragement, and tried to commit suicide The author has previously related that, during the retreat from Moscow, Napoleon, fearing lest he might fall into the hands of the Cossacks, asked Yvan, his doctor, to give him a packet of poison which he could make use of to preserve himself by death from indignities. Fortunately he was not forced to recur to such a measure at that time. On his return to Paris he removed the black taffeta sachet in which the poison had seen placed from his neck, and deposited it in one of the boxes in his travelling bag, where it emained until 1814. In the hour of his deepest despendency, when the splendid campaign of France had failed to save the empire, Napoleon remembered this sachet. On April 10, after having onsulted Yvan on the various means of putting an end to one's life, he drew out the sachet in uestion before the doctor's eyes and opened it Terrifled by this action, Yvan seized part of its ontents and threw it into the fire. It appears that on the morrow despair seized upon the mperor's mind. Without summoning any one, he rose, diluted the rest of the poison in a goblet, and swallowed it. What remained of the substance was no doubt insufficient in quantity or had been too much diluted to cause death. Toward 11 o'clock in the evening the silence of the Palace of Fontaincbleau was suddenly disturbed by the sound of groans and the noise the Duke of Vicence, and Gen. Bertrand rushed to the Emperor's side, while Yvan himself was sent for. Napoleon was stretched out on a sofa in his bedroom, with his head leaning on his hands. Addressing himself to the Doctor, he said, "Death will have nothing to do with me. You know what I have taken." Shocked and dumfounded, Yvan stammered that he did not know what his Majesty meant, that he had given him nothing. At last, losing his head altogether, he rushed out of the chamber to throw himself into an armchair in the room adjoining, where he had a violent fit of hysterica. Napoleon passed a fairly quiet night, and on the morrow when M. de Turenne and others pre-sented themselves at his levee they found him almost recovered from his violent moral and physical shock.

It is well known that Marie Louise did not accompany her husband to Elba, but went with her father to Vienna, whence in July, 1814 she proceeded to Aix in Savoy. Here she met the person who was to exercise a sinister influence upon her life. We refer, of course, to Gen. Count Nelpperg. Méneval, who knew him well and has much to say about him in this volume, asserts that the first sight of him produced a disagreeable impression on the Empress. Count Neipperg was not, we are told, particularly well favored. A black bandage covered the deep scar of a wound by which he had lost an eye. Nevertheless, this disadvantage disappeared when one looked at him attentively, for the wound rather suited the martial character of his face. His bair was of a light blond color, scanty and curly; his complexion, though full colored, lacked freshness. His glance, however, was bright and penetrating. His features were neither vulgar nor distinguished, but, taken altogether, they betokened a clever and subtle man. He was of the middle height and well built, and the elegance of his figure was heightened by the loose cut of the Hungarian uniform. In 1814 Gen. Neipperg was about 42 years old. Attempting to indicate the quality by means of which a man of nearly ouble her age came to play so capital a part in Marie Louise's life, the author says that his general aspect was amiable, his manners polite, insinuating, and flattering, and that he knew how to conceal acuteness under outward simplicity. He spoke and wrote with grace and he was a good musician. To much tact he added the faculty of observation, and knew how to listen. intently. At times his face would assume a caressing expression, and then again his glance would seem to fathom one's secret thought. He was as clever in reading the designs of others as he was prudent in the conduct of his own. It was characteristic of him that, veiling immense wanity and ambition behind the outward signs of modesty, he never spoke of himself. Méneval was told by M. Armandi, a Colonel of artillery in the Italian army, who had at one time acted as Minister of War, that Neipperg was in Milan in 1814, at the house of a lady whose lover he was, when he received notice that he had been selected to reside with the ex-Empress, now become Duchess of Parma. Italian mistress tried in vain His keep him back, and having asked him what he would do with Marin Louise, she received from Neipperg the following reply: "I hope to be on the most intimate terms with her before six months are up, and soon to be her husband." To

father of the General, was filling a diplomatic mission in Paris, he made the acquaintance of a French officer belonging to a distinguished famlly. He received him with familiarity at his house, and Countess Neipperg did not remain insensible to the merits of Comte de Hrepaid her with assiduous attention. An intinacy arose between the Countess and the young officer, and tien. Nelpperg was the fruit of it. The proof of this fact lies in a letter from Countess Neipperg which was found in the letters left by Count H. after his death. It is well known that, after the death of Napoleon, Marie Louise, who had long been living with Neipperg. united herself to him by a morganatio marriage. She had three children by him.

Throughout these memoirs. Meneval expresses

high opinion of Joseph Bonaparte, through whose recommendation he became secretary to Napoleon. Finding himself in Geneva in September, 1814, he went to spend the dar at Prangins, an estate situated some four leagues from the town, on the shore of the lake, where the ex-Queen of Spain, Julia, wife of Joseph Bonaparte, and recently arrived with her children. The author tells us that he found King Joseph, just as he had always been, amiable and unpretentious, returned, like Cincinnatus, to his plough, much more taken up with the details of his rustic life and his brother's future fate than with the remembrance of the brilliant and stormy career which he himself had passed through. Meneval assures us that seph Bonaparte loved Napoleon as much as he admired him, and that there existed between the two brothers a sympathy which the difference in their characters may have helped to strengthen. This difference of character is disclosed by a remark sometimes addressed to his secretary by Napoleon when First Consul. before Joseph Bonaparte had consented to take an active part in government: " Why is Joseph. with all his talent, so lazy?" The term laziness was applied by Napoleon to the moderation which kept his brother away from the cares and chains of a rank which is an object of envy to almost all mankind. But, while the glory of enterprises which might have been above his capacity did not tempt Joseph Bonaparte's ambition, he is credited with knowing how to display in business, when once he was engaged in it, the sagacity and energy which it demanded. Méneval, who knew him at both epochs, insists that to the negotiations which occupied the first period of his political career, Joseph brought the lights of a keen and profound mind, a gift for lucid discussion, and a straightforwardness which was proof against any attempt to warp it; he displayed the same talents in his administration of the two countries, Naples and Spain, which he was called upon successively to govern. A gentle philosophy, the qualities of a gentleman, an apright heart, and a noble character would have drawn attention to him in any condition of life. and, as the Emperor used to say, would have made him the ornament of society. Some doubts have been cast by Taine and

others on the genuineness of Napoleon's professions of fraternal affection and upon his tender heartedness. Méneval reproduces the following letter to show how little those who thus judge him knew him. The original letter is addressed to Joseph Bonaparte, and dated Messidor, year III.; it bears traces of the tears which fell from the writer's eyes as he was penning it: 'In whatever position fortune and events may place you, you know well, my friend, that you can have no better friend, dearer to you, or more sincerely desiring your happiness. Life is a light dream which fades away. If you are leaving, and you think it will be for some time, send me your portrait. We have lived so many years together, so closely united that our hearts have melted into one. Better than anybody you know how entirely my heart is yours. I feel as I write these lines an emotion which I have rarely experienced in the course of my life. I feel sure it will be a long time before I see you again. I cannot continue my letter. Farewell, my friend. Napoleon." Méneval avers that the sentiments here expressed with so much tenderness never changed, and that he often saw or heard the proofs of this. It will not be disputed that a man who, for

many years, was Napoleon's private secretary,

is a competent witness as to who did and who

did not influence his master. Méneval exhibits

much surprise that a large share in the direction of Napoleon's politics should have been attributed to Talleyrand. In our author's opinion, Talleyrand's great skill lay in his savoir faire, in his talent for intrigue, and in his power of hiding his secret dislikes. He always sheltered for instance, behind Mirabeau, and then behind Napoleon. It was not thanks to numerous conceptions matured in the study, nor to a gift for developing them in searchdebate, nor to eloquence as an orator, that Talleyrand raised himself to the rank where public opinion has placed him. Méneval would find the secret of the superiority attributed to him by his contemporaries, first in the prestige attaching to the great diplomatio transactions of the consulate and the empire, in which he was a keen and intelligent agent, then in the long career of public honors, wherein he knew how to maintain himself, and, finally, in the art of resuming in witty or sententious sayings the gravest and most important questions What made, indeed, Talleyrand's cooperation especially precious to the Emperor was his aptitude for diplomatic conversation. Comparing him to another of his Ministers, Napoleon used to say of him: "Another will speak with so much ease that, yielding to the pleasure of talking, he lets his secret escape him, and comes away without having found out the secrets of his interlocutor, whereas Talleyrand allows nobody to fathom him, and extracts all that it is of interest for me to know out of the person to whom he is speaking." In fine, the author of this book believes that Talleyrand owed the best part of his reputation to his circumspection and the prudent silence which he was careful to observe. He never allowed himself to be carried into a dispute with anybody. His principle was to let pecple talk, and not to answer. An anecdote related by Gen. Lamarque bears on this point. The General, it seems, had formerly had a controversy with an ardent republican, and defended himself vigorously against the latter's attacks, which were made by means of letters to the papers. One day, when he had published a letter in the Constitutionnel with which he was very well satisfied, he found himself at dinner placed next to Prince Talleyrand. The Prince nudged him with his elbow and said: "Gen, Lamarque, I thought you were an intelligent man." On the General's expressing surprise at this remark, Talleyrand continued: "I say that because I read a letter of yours in a newspaper of this morning. How can you be simple enough to enter the arena with people who attack you? You cannot imagine how you please them by so doing. Trust me, let them talk, and you keep quiet. Do as I do: I have never answered anybody, and you see that I have had no reason to complain of the result."

A large part of a chapter is devoted to Murat's remarkable adventures during the months pre-ceding his execution. It will be remembered that in Erfurth, in 1813, after the battle of Leipsic, he took what was to be a last farewell of the Emperor and returned to Naples. He was himself convinced that the Emperor's power was shaken to its foundation, and Fouché was able to persuade him that the time had come when he must separate his fortunes from those of Napoleon. It is evident that Méneval had a liking for Murat, for he suggests that this calculation may have been based upon a feeling of generosity which calls for induigence and diminishes the culpability of the desertion. May not the King of Naples have said to himself, ho asks, that if he, the only ally remaining to the Emperor, were to be dragged down with him in a common fall, all hope would be forever lost, matter. This war, moreover, according to the thor mentions the curious fact that this Ausmemoirs, should have been one of the most poputrian General was the son of a Frenchman. It on the curious of the empire, he would have the culture is carried on conjointly with cattle of the country, and that their presence, except lar of modern times. Why? Because it was a seems that while Count Neipperg, the putative chapte of being useful to his benefactor? It is

had influence on his determination. Supposed friends had assured him that it was Napoleon's intention to incorporate the State of Naples into the kingdom of Italy. Murat had, accordingly, come to the conclusion that his throne would not be in safety so long as Napoleon's rule remained preponderant in the peninsula. So, on Jap. 11, 1814, after a violent struggle between his good and evil genius, signed an offensive and defensive liance with Austria, who went surety for her allies. Before the year was over, however, he repented of betraying his benefactor, and he also had reason to suspect the good faith of the Austrian Government. He entered into communications with the island of Elba, and having obtained from Napoleon a promise that he would forget what had passed, once more made common cause with him in secret. Thus it came to pass that while Napoleon, having landed in France, was preparing for the campaign of Waterloo, the King of Naples attacked the Austrians and drove them back from position to position to the banks of the Po. Ultimately, however, in a two days' battle on the plain Tolentino, the Neapolitan army succumbed to the force of an enemy numerically superior, in spite of its chief's prodigies of valor. During the retreat the treachery of certain officers caused a panic in the Neapolitan force, Abandoned by his soldiers, Murat had nothing left to do but to return to Naples, and he entered the capital accompanied by a few lancers. He went straight to the palace, where he appeared before the Queen, pale and emaciated, covered with dust. Embracing his wife tenderly, he said. "All is lost except my life. I was not for-tunate enough to find death." Having taken leave of the Queen and his children, the King cut off his hair, which fell in long ringlets on his shoulders, and, putting off his decorations, dressed himself in clothes that would not at tract attention. He walked along the coast until he was opposite the Island of Nisida, and there got into a boat which landed him on the island of Ischia, where he passed three days without being recognized. On the fourth day, as he was walking along the beach accompanied by his pephew, and was deliberating on the best means of escaping to France, he noticed a little sailing ship which was approaching him. Hailing this vessel and flinging himself into a fishing smack, the King ordered its owner to go and meet it, and, to his surprise. found on board his grand equerry and an aidede-camp, who, having been supplied with money for the purpose, were looking for their unfortunate sovereign. By means of this vessel Murat succeeded in landing at Cannes, toward the end of May, 1815. He immediately wrote to Fouche, charging him to speak for him to the Emperor, and to ask the latter to allow him to go to Paris. Napoleon's only answer was to ask his brother in-law what treaty of peace had been concluded between France and Naples since 1814 In consequence of this rebuff, Fouché advised Murat to remain where he was, adding that it was still possible for him to render service to his native country by exciting the inhabitants and troops of the neighborhood to vigorous resistance to the enemies within and without—skind of service which Murat was never to render, for he had no influence whatever with the French, who could not forget his desertion in 1814. After Louis XVIII. returned to Paris, Murat found himself in a most critical position. Exposed to danger at the hands of murderers, who were seeking for him to kill him-a price of 24,000 francs was set upon his head-he was obliged to change his hiding place incessantly

admitted, however, that a less chivalrous motive

and at nightfall. Repeatedly he escaped by a hair's breadth the men who were pursuing him. Corsica was the only country which seemed to offer him an asylum, and finally, on Aug. 22, 1815, he undertook, with three companions, to reach that island in an open boat. The boat filled with water and was on the point of sinking, when the packet which plied beween Toulon and Bastia rescued the fugitives. After spending a day at Bastia, Murat proceeded to Vecovato, a large village fifteen miles to the southward, the inhabitants of which made it a point of honor to defend their guest, and presently collected a force of 800 men for his ection. With a part of these he moved onward to Ajaccio and occupied the town. The inhabitants received him with respect, and his troops behaved with absolute discipline. Here it that he arranged for the purchase of five ships, and got together the arms and ammunition necessary for an expedition against Naples. While at Ajaccio the ex-King received through an English officer an offer signed by Metternich of hospitality from the Austrian Government. Murat answered that it was too late, that the die was cast, and that he had already waited for the decision of the allied powers three months, during which time his life had been constantly threatened, and that finally, persecuted himself behind some Frenchman of great caas he was by the sovereigns of Europe, tempt to recover the throne which he had lost. Another motive which impelled him to persevere in his determination to vindicate his rights was, that in acting otherwise he would have compromised several hundred brave officers and soldiers who had resolved to follow him and whom he could not think of abandoning to the

vengeance of the French royal Government. Murat's intention had been to land at Salerno, where a considerable number of his old Neapolitan troops were stationed; but a storm having separated him from his flotilla, he beached his reduces in the neighborhood of Pizzo. Accompleted the market place at Pizzo and addressed the inhabitants. Some saluted him and offered him horses, but the majority showed hesitation, and, after Murat had continued his march on Monteleone, a large troop was organized for his Jurusit. On the approach of these assailants, Murat, supposing them to be a resinforcement, which is the property of the saludation of his property of the saludation of his results and after encounter ensured in which the party of the ex-King, who defended himself with the courage of despair, lost some men killed and many wounded. Followed by a dozen of his friends, Murat cut his way through the thick of his enemies, and succeeded in reaching the place in the bay where he had in reaching the place in the place of the place of the reaching the place of felucea in the neighborhood of Pizzo. Accompanied by about thirty of his old officers, he entered the market place at Pizzo and addressed

PRICES OF PAINTINGS.

Breat Fluctuations Through Which the Works of Great Artista Have Passer

LONDON, Aug. 5 .- A portrait of Lady Berry Delme by Reynolds was sold last month for 11,000 guiness a consistent sequel to the high lgures given for all objects of art this year, in striking opposition to the supposed financial da pression. It is not without interest to note the fluctuations and variations of price to which really valuable paintings have been subjected within a comparatively restricted period.

Ten years ago the "Crucifixion" sold at a public auction in Landon for only 000 guineas, which seemed to show that Englishmen are, as a rule, anxious to remain in possession of the masterpleces of their own artists in preference to those of foreign artists. Yet we find in the seventeenth century Lard Arundei of foring 7,000 guineas for the "Ecce Hom Titlan to the Duke of Buckingham, who could not be induced to part with It.

As a rule, however, it is not connoisseurs but amateurs who bring a painter into fashion: the ignorant masses follow the lead of equality ignorant buyers, bidding higher and higher for pictures till the last purchaser, coming forward at the flood tide of popularity, finds that he has made a very poor bargain, and is eventually the chief loser. The sea paintings and landscapes of Joseph Vernet realized as much as 3,000 livres in 1779, an enormous sum for the currency of the time, and yet they would with difficulty fetch an equivalent sum to-day

The first important sale of paintings occurred in the last century, and took place in Paris in March, 1737. The collection belonged Comtesse de Verrue, the fair friend of the Duke of Savoy, of whom it was said more wittily than good naturedly that "to make sure of Paradise she won it in this world." A David Teniers was sold for 200 livres, possibly because Louis XIV., to whom one had shown a picture by that artist, had said, "Remove these abortions." Two small paintings by Watteau, which would now be worth a hundred times as much, went for 531 livres; but, stranger yet, two pictures by Rembrandt were knocked down at 450 livres On the other hand, by an equally inconceivable freak, two paintings by Rubens brought 200 livres; two by Wouvermans, 5,036, and a Berghem, purchased by the Comte de Clermons, 3,000 livres.

In order to understand the discrepancy be ween these prices it is necessary to bear in mind that taste and fashion at that time had been enlisted almost unanimously in favor of the Italian and Rubens schools, the latter painter having personally left in France the reputation of a great artist and a grand seigneur. Claude Lorrain, whose real name was Claude Gelée, had been consecrated painter of genius in Rome, hence the immense vogue obtained by his paintings. The French artists who are so der mired to-day achieved only slow and tardy reoognition of their merits.

In 1738, in Brussels, the Comte de Fraula sold his pictures, and the prices were lower still, reckoning florins equal to two shillings of English money. "A Lion Hunt," by Rubens, brought 105 florins; "A Bacchante," by Pous-sin, 650 florins; "The Man with the Red Coat," by Rembrandt, 355 florins, and the " Portrait of an English Lady," by Van Dyck, 53 florins. At the same sale a Breughel reached 880 floring

In 1756 the "Liseuse," by Correggio, at the sale of the Duc de Tallard was knocked down for 3,601 livres, and the biggest price yet paid for any one picture was given for the "St. Ce-cilia" of Rubens, 20,000 livres. However, in 1761, the portrait of Tintoretto, by the same painter, was disposed of for 60 livres only. It was about this period that Rembrandt commenced to be appreciated; his two paintings at the Louvre, "The Philosopher Meditating" and 'The Philosopher in Contemplation," brought 4,000 livres.

Drawings and cartoons were literally given away; fifteen sketches by Leonardo da Vinci were publicly sold for 9 livres in 1741, siz drawings by Michael Angelo for 14 livres, two heads by Andrea del Sarto for 8 livres, and thirty drawings by Raphael for 163 livres. Hobbems, the great Dutch landscape painter,

had to wait long for recognition of his talents one of his best landscapes was sold at Leyden in 1781 for the modest sum of 525 florins. The French masters fared no better up to the

cond half of the seventeenth century. A pastel of Boucher was sold for 41 livres in 1763; at the sale of Mme. de Pompadour in 1768 two allegories of a somewhat risqué character by the same artist suddenly leaped into popularity and realized 9,800 livres. Watteau, who had seen his "Pierrot," now one of the gems of the Louvre, go for 36 livres twenty-five years before, was able to know that his "Concert in a Garden "fetched 2,100 livres at the sale of Mms.

Greuze, whose canvases are now covered with gold, received only 800 livres for one of his lovely female heads at the very time when two landscapes by Joseph Vernet brought 6,000 livres and a Salvator Rosa 12,012 livres. Quite as remarkable are the 6,000 livres paid for Murillo's "Noces de Cana" and the 845 for Paul Veronese's " Baptism of Christ."

In 1780, at the sale of the Marquis de Menars, the celebrated Superintendent of Fine Arts, brother of Mme. de Pompadour, buyers came from all parts and prices ran high. "The Village Bride" of Greuze brought 16,650 livres. and others were equally successful, which, however, did not prevent some valuable pictures from going for a song. This sale was the last important one before the revolution. In 1793 the finest collection in France, belonging to the